

# Respiratory Failure

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# RESPIRATORY FAILURE

- “inability of the lung to meet the metabolic demands of the body. This can be from failure of tissue oxygenation and/or failure of CO<sub>2</sub> homeostasis.”

# RESPIRATORY FAILURE

## ■ Definition

Respiration is gas exchange between the organism and its environment. Function of respiratory system is to transfer  $O_2$  from atmosphere to blood and remove  $CO_2$  from blood.

## ■ Clinically

Respiratory failure is defined as  $PaO_2 < 60$  mmHg while breathing air, or a  $PaCO_2 > 50$  mmHg.

# Respiratory system includes:

CNS (medulla)

Peripheral nervous system (phrenic nerve)

Respiratory muscles

Chest wall

Lung

Upper airway

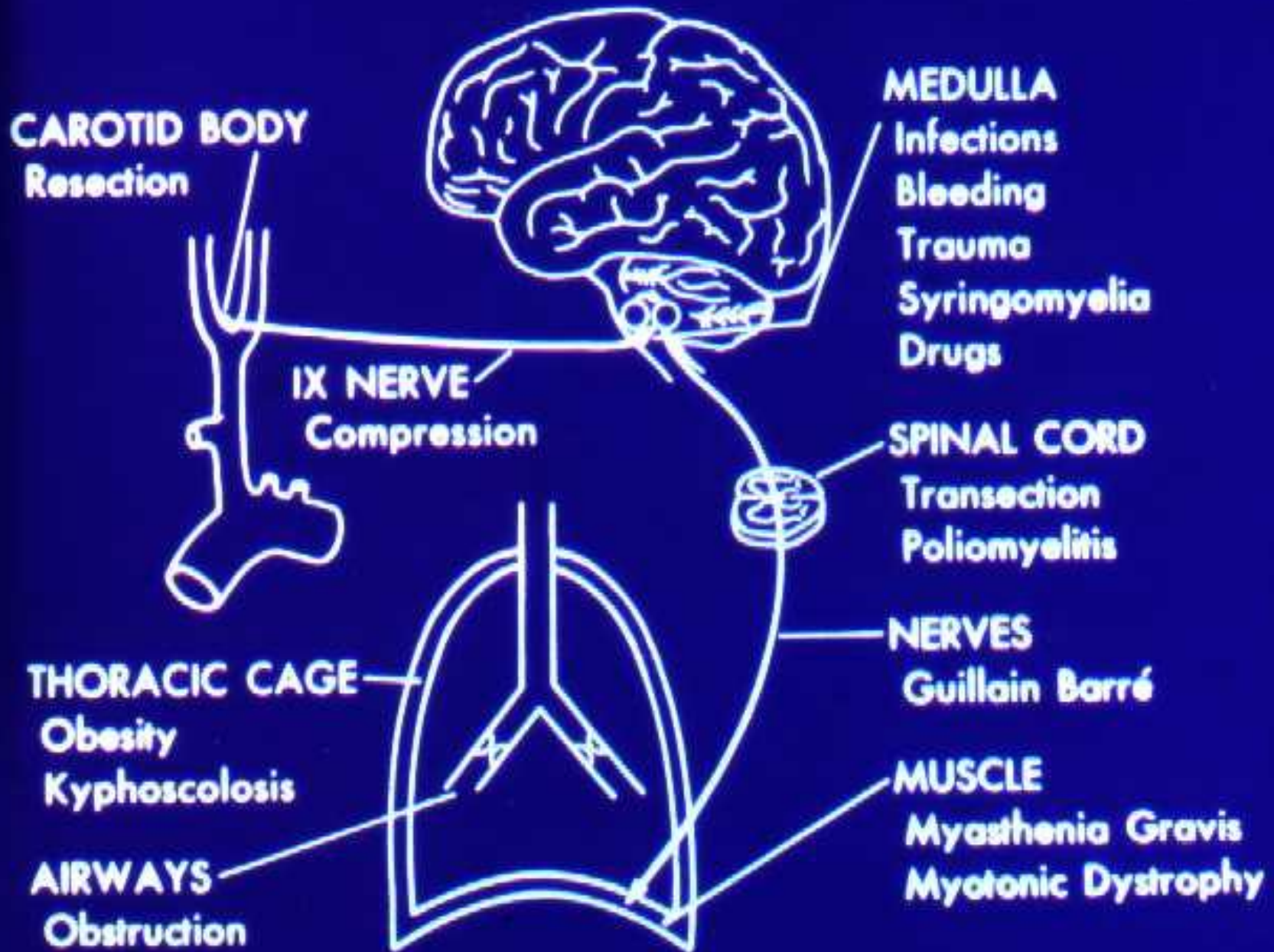
Bronchial tree

Alveoli

Pulmonary vasculature



# Potential causes of Respiratory Failure



# *Pathophysiology*

- type I respiratory failure
- When disease impairs ventilation of part of a lung (e.g. in asthma or pneumonia), perfusion of that region results in hypoxic and CO<sub>2</sub>-laden blood entering the pulmonary veins. Increased ventilation of neighbouring regions of normal lung can increase CO<sub>2</sub> excretion, correcting arterial CO<sub>2</sub> to normal, but cannot augment oxygen uptake because the haemoglobin flowing

# *Pathophysiology*

through these normal regions is already fully saturated. Admixture of blood from the under-ventilated and normal regions thus results in hypoxia with normocapnia.

- **type II respiratory failure**
- it is seen in conditions that cause generalised, severe ventilation–perfusion mismatch, leaving insufficient normal lung to correct  $PaCO_2$ ,

# *Pathophysiology*

or any disease that reduces total ventilation. The latter includes not just diseases of the lung but also disorders affecting any part of the neuromuscular mechanism of ventilation.

# HYPOXEMIC RESPIRATORY FAILURE(TYPE 1)

- $\text{PaO}_2 < 60\text{mmHg}$  with normal or low  $\text{PaCO}_2 \rightarrow$  normal or high pH
- Most common form of respiratory failure
- Lung disease is severe to interfere with pulmonary  $\text{O}_2$  exchange, but overall ventilation is maintained
- Physiologic causes: V/Q mismatch and shunt



# HYPOXEMIC RESPIRATORY FAILURE

## CAUSES OF ARTERIAL HYPOXEMIA

1.  $\downarrow \text{FiO}_2$
  2. Hypoventilation  
( $\uparrow \text{PaCO}_2$ )
  3. V/Q mismatch  
(eg.COPD)
  4. Diffusion limitation ?
  5. Intrapulmonary shunt
    - pneumonia
    - Atelectasis
    - CHF (high pressure pulmonary edema)
    - ARDS (low pressure pulmonary edema)
- Hypercapnic  
Respiratory failure

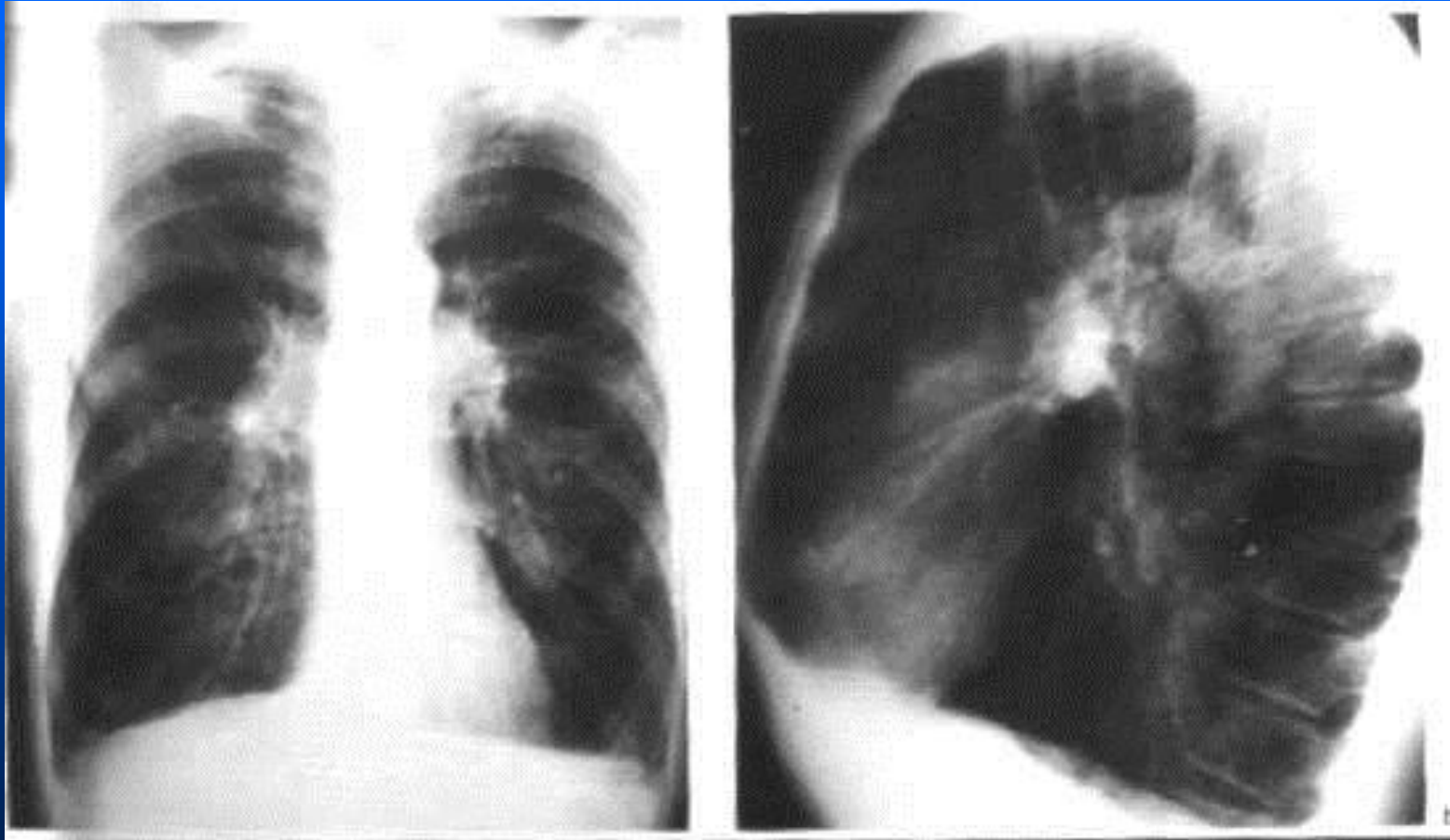
	Type I		Type II	
	Hypoxia ( $PaO_2 < 8.0$ kPa (60 mmHg)) Normal or low $PaCO_2 (\leq 6$ kPa (45 mmHg))		Hypoxia ( $PaO_2 < 8.0$ kPa (60 mmHg)) Raised $PaCO_2 (> 6$ kPa (45 mmHg))	
	Acute	Chronic	Acute	Chronic
$H^+$	→	→	↑	→ or ↑
Bicarbonate	→	→	→	↑
Causes	Acute asthma Pulmonary oedema Pneumonia Lobar collapse Pneumothorax Pulmonary embolus ARDS	COPD Lung fibrosis Lymphangitic carcinomatosis Right-to-left shunts	Acute severe asthma Acute exacerbation of COPD Upper airway obstruction Acute neuropathies/paralysis Narcotic drugs Primary alveolar hypoventilation Flail chest injury	COPD Sleep apnoea Kyphoscoliosis Myopathies/muscular dystrophy Ankylosing spondylitis
(ARDS = acute respiratory distress syndrome; COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease)				

# Causes of Hypoxemic Respiratory failure

- Caused by a disorder of heart, lung or blood.
- Etiology easier to assess by CXR abnormality:
  - Normal Chest x-ray
    - Cardiac shunt (right to left)
    - Asthma, COPD
    - Pulmonary embolism



# Hyperinflated Lungs : COPD



# Causes of Hypoxemic Respiratory failure (cont'd.)

- Focal infiltrates on CXR

Atelectasis

Pneumonia

# An example of intrapulmonary shunt

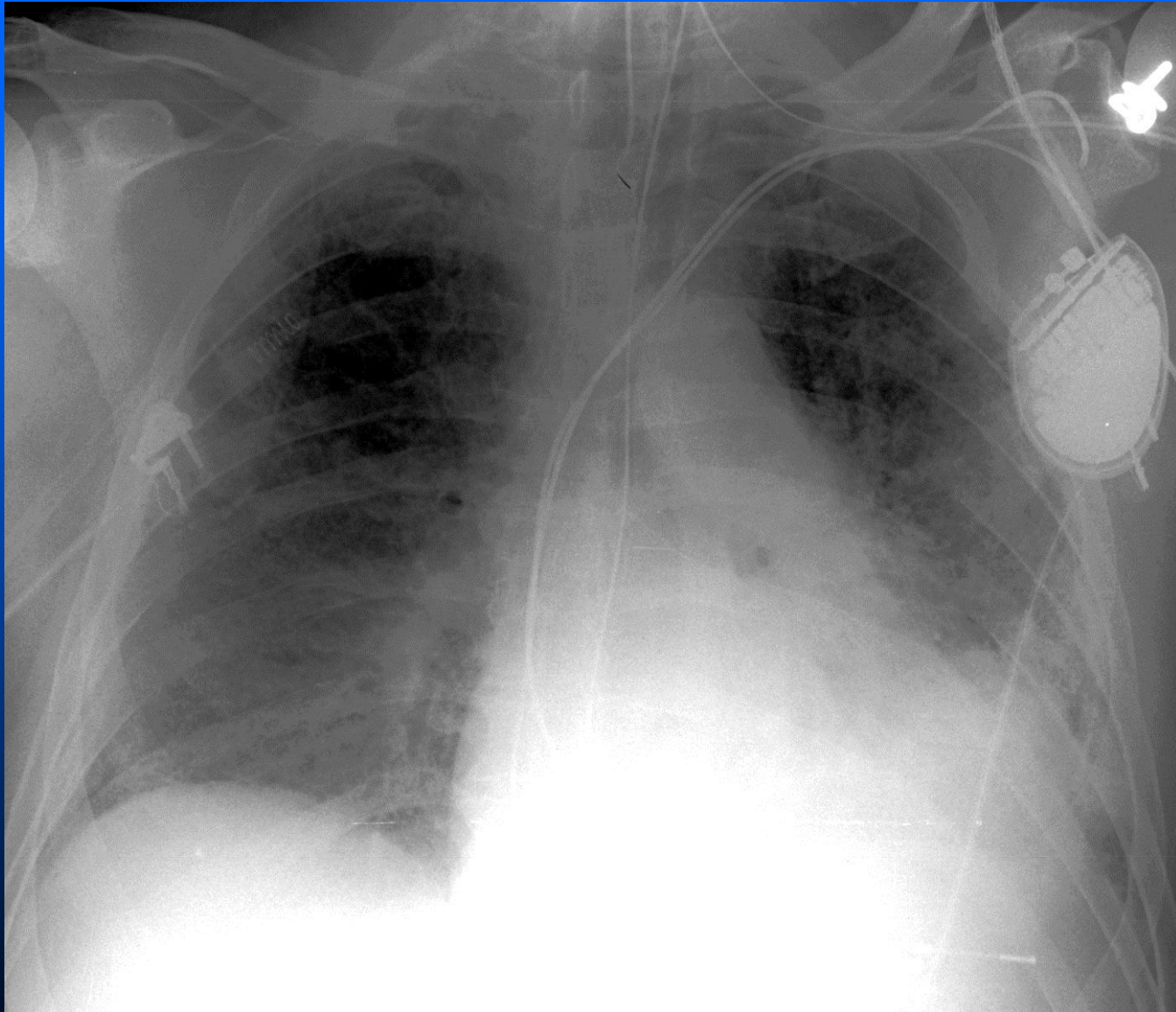


# Causes of Hypoxemic Respiratory Failure (cont'd.)

Diffuse infiltrates on CXR

- Cardiogenic Pulmonary Edema
- Non cardiogenic pulmonary edema (ARDS)
- Interstitial pneumonitis or fibrosis
- Infections

# Diffuse pulmonary infiltrates



# Hypercapnic Respiratory Failure (Type II)

- $\text{PaCO}_2 > 50 \text{ mmHg}$
- Hypoxemia is always present
- pH depends on level of  $\text{HCO}_3$
- $\text{HCO}_3$  depends on duration of hypercapnia
- Renal response occurs over days to weeks

# Acute Hypercapnic Respiratory Failure (Type II)

- Acute
- Arterial pH is low
- Causes
  - sedative drug over dose
  - acute muscle weakness such as myasthenia gravis
  - severe lung disease:  
alveolar ventilation can not be maintained (i.e. Asthma or pneumonia)
- Acute on chronic:
- This occurs in patients with chronic CO<sub>2</sub> retention who worsen and have rising CO<sub>2</sub> and low pH.
- Mechanism: respiratory muscle fatigue



# Causes of Hypercapnic Respiratory failure

- Respiratory centre (medulla) dysfunction
- Drug over dose, CVA, tumor, hypothyroidism, central hypoventilation
- Neuromuscular disease
  - Guillain-Barre, Myasthenia Gravis, polio, spinal injuries
- Chest wall/Pleural diseases
  - kyphoscoliosis, pneumothorax, massive pleural effusion
- Upper airways obstruction
  - tumor, foreign body, laryngeal edema
- Peripheral airway disorder
  - asthma, COPD



# Clinical and Laboratory Manifestation

(non-specific and unreliable)

- Cyanosis
  - bluish color of mucous membranes/skin indicate hypoxemia
- - unoxygenated hemoglobin 50 mg/L
  - not a sensitive indicator
- Dyspnea
  - secondary to hypercapnia and hypoxemia
- Paradoxical breathing
- Confusion, somnolence and coma
- Convulsions

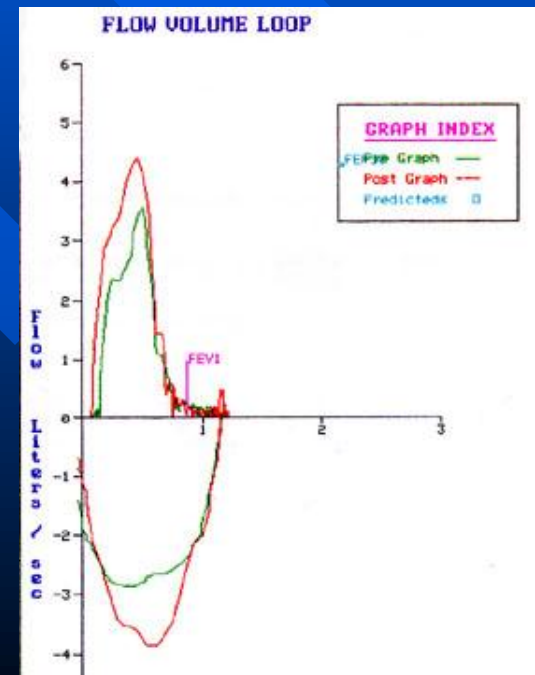
# ASSESSMENT OF PATIENT

- Careful history
- Physical Examination
- ABG analysis
  - classify RF and help with cause

$$1) \text{ PaCO}_2 = \frac{\text{VCO}_2}{\text{VA}} \times 0.863$$

$$2) \text{ P(A-a)O}_2 = (\text{PiO}_2 - \frac{\text{PaCO}_2}{\text{R}}) - \text{PaO}_2$$

- Lung function
  - OVP vs RVP vs NVP
- Chest Radiograph
- ECG



# Clinical & Laboratory Manifestations

- Circulatory changes
  - tachycardia, hypertension, hypotension
- Polycythemia
  - chronic hypoxemia - erythropoietin synthesis
- Pulmonary hypertension
- Cor-pulmonale or right ventricular failure

# Management of Respiratory Failure

## Principles

- Hypoxemia may cause death in RF
- Primary objective is to reverse and prevent hypoxemia
- Secondary objective is to control  $\text{PaCO}_2$  and respiratory acidosis
- Treatment of underlying disease
- Patient's CNS and CVS must be monitored and treated

# In type I respiratory failure

- High concentrations of oxygen (40–60% by mask) will usually relieve hypoxia by increasing the alveolar  $PO_2$  in poorly ventilated lung units.
- mechanical ventilation
  - may be needed to relieve hypoxia. Occasionally, (e.g. severe pneumonia affecting several lobes
- humidified oxygen for Pts who need high concentrations for more than a few hours

# Management

- Treat the cause
- Tension pneumothorax
  - Needle aspiration and chest drain
- Pulmonary oedema (diuretics)
- PE :Anticoagulant and thrombolytics
- Asthma ,COPD treatment

# type II respiratory failure

- Acute type II respiratory failure
- is an emergency requiring immediate intervention
- It is useful to distinguish acute upper airway obstruction((rapid respiratory rate and accessory muscle recruitment with stridor )
  - Heimlich manoeuvre
  - immediate intubation or
  - Emergency tracheostomy



# type II respiratory failure

- high-concentration (e.g. 60%) oxygen should be administered, pending a rapid examination of the respiratory system and measurement of arterial blood gases
- Treatment of COPD OR Asthma exacerbations
- Supported ventilation
  - is required if failure to respond to initial treatment, declining conscious level and worsening respiratory



# Chronic and 'acute on chronic' type II respiratory failure

- The most common cause of chronic type II respiratory failure is severe COPD.
- These patients have lost their chemosensitivity to elevated  $PaCO_2$ , and so they may paradoxically depend on hypoxia for respiratory drive and are at risk of respiratory depression if given high concentrations of oxygen

# **‘acute on chronic’ type II respiratory failure**

- some patients with ‘acute on chronic’ type II respiratory failure due to COPD **may not appear distressed, despite being critically ill with severe hypoxaemia, hypercapnia and acidaemia.** While the physical signs of CO<sub>2</sub> retention (delirium, flapping tremor, bounding pulses and so on) can be helpful if present, **they may not be, so measurement of arterial blood gases is mandatory in the assessment of initial severity and response to treatment**

# Assessment and management of 'acute on chronic' type II respiratory failure

## Initial assessment

*Patient may not appear distressed, despite being critically ill*

- Conscious level (response to commands, ability to cough)
- CO<sub>2</sub> retention (warm periphery, bounding pulses, flapping tremor)
- Airways obstruction (wheeze, prolonged expiration, hyperinflation, intercostal indrawing, pursed lips)
- Cor pulmonale (peripheral oedema, raised jugular venous pressure, hepatomegaly, ascites)
- Background functional status and quality of life
- Signs of precipitating cause (see Box 17.15)

## Investigations

- Arterial blood gases (severity of hypoxaemia, hypercapnia, acidaemia, bicarbonate)
- Chest X-ray

## Management

- Maintenance of airway
- Treatment of specific precipitating cause
- Frequent physiotherapy ± pharyngeal suction
- Nebulised bronchodilators
- Controlled oxygen therapy:
  - Start with 24% Venturi mask
  - Aim for a  $PaO_2 > 7$  kPa (52 mmHg) (a  $PaO_2 < 5$  (37 mmHg) is dangerous)
- Antibiotics if evidence of infection
- Diuretics if evidence of fluid overload

## Progress

- If  $PaCO_2$  continues to rise or a safe  $PaO_2$  cannot be achieved without severe hypercapnia and acidaemia, mechanical ventilatory support may be required

# Oxygen Therapy

- Supplemental O<sub>2</sub> therapy essential
- Titration based on SaO<sub>2</sub>, PaO<sub>2</sub> levels and PaCO<sub>2</sub>
- Goal is to prevent tissue hypoxia
- Tissue hypoxia occurs (normal Hb & C.O.)
  - venous PaO<sub>2</sub> < 20 mmHg or SaO<sub>2</sub> < 40%
  - arterial PaO<sub>2</sub> < 38 mmHg or SaO<sub>2</sub> < 70%
- Increase arterial PaO<sub>2</sub> > 60 mmHg (SaO<sub>2</sub> > 90%) or venous SaO<sub>2</sub> > 60%
- O<sub>2</sub> dose either flow rate (L/min) or FiO<sub>2</sub> (%)

# Risks of Oxygen Therapy

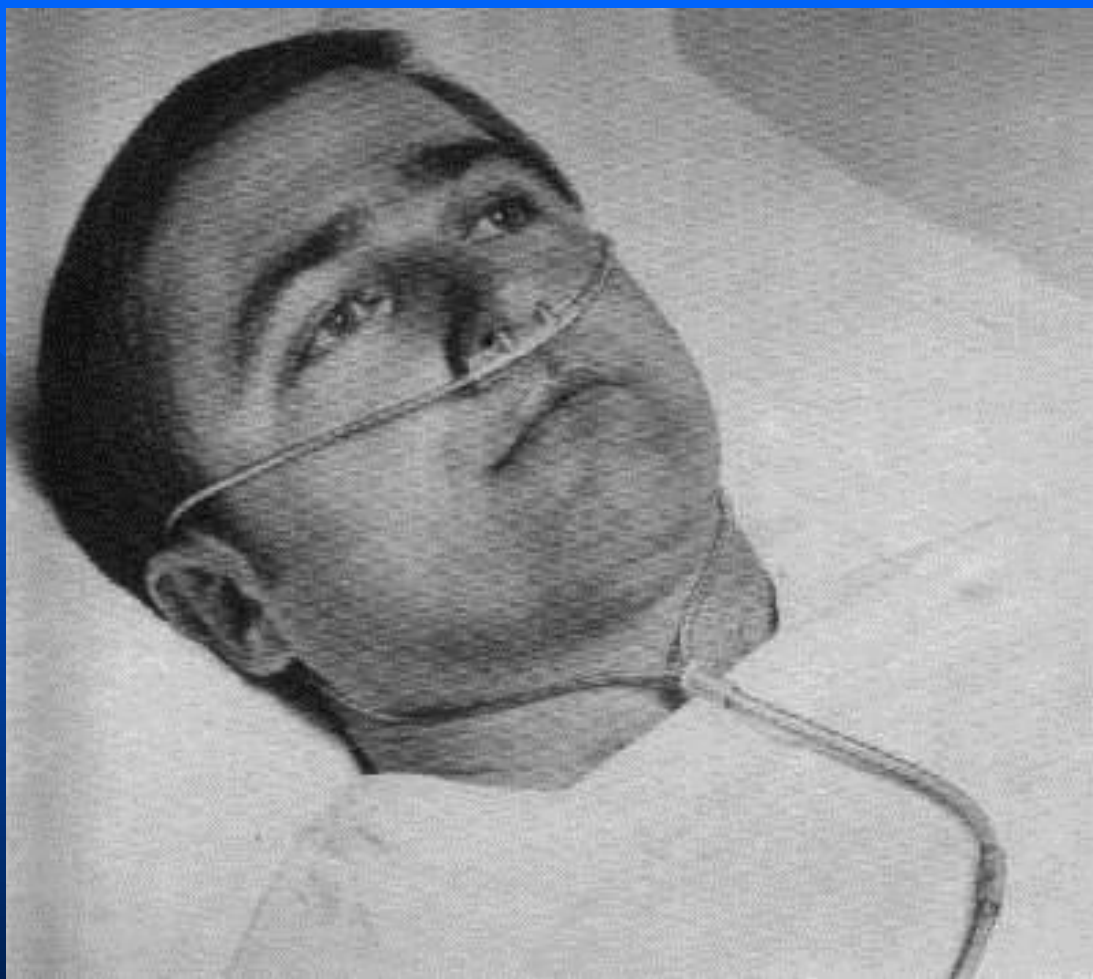
## ■ O<sub>2</sub> toxicity:

- very high levels(>1000 mmHg) CNS toxicity and seizures
- lower levels (FiO<sub>2</sub> > 60%) and longer exposure: - capillary damage, leak and pulmonary fibrosis
- PaO<sub>2</sub> >150 can cause retrolental fibroplasia
- FiO<sub>2</sub> 35 to 40% can be safely tolerated indefinitely

## ■ CO<sub>2</sub> narcosis:

- PaCO<sub>2</sub> may increase severely to cause respiratory acidosis, somnolence and coma
- PaCO<sub>2</sub> increase secondary to combination of
  - a) abolition of hypoxic drive to breathe
  - b) increase in dead space







# MECHANICAL VENTILATION

- Non invasive with a mask
  - Invasive with an endobronchial tube
  - MV can be volume or pressure cycled
- For hypercapnia:
- MV increases alveolar ventilation and lowers  $\text{PaCO}_2$ , corrects pH
  - rests fatigues respiratory muscles
- For hypoxemia:
- $\text{O}_2$  therapy alone does not correct hypoxemia caused by shunt
  - Most common cause of shunt is fluid filled or collapsed alveoli (Pulmonary edema)





# POSITIVE END EXPIRATORY PRESSURE (PEEP)

- PEEP increases the end expiratory lung volume (FRC)
- PEEP recruits collapsed alveoli and prevents recollapse
- FRC increases, therefore lung becomes more compliant
- Reversal of atelectasis diminishes intrapulmonary shunt
- Excessive PEEP has adverse effects
  - decreased cardiac output
  - barotrauma (pneumothorax, pneumomediastinum)
  - increased physiologic dead space
  - increased work of breathing

# Adult Respiratory distress Syndrome (ARDS)

- Variety of unrelated massive insults injure gas exchanging surface of Lungs
- First described as clinical syndrome in 1967 by Ashbaugh & Petty
- Clinical terms synonymous with ARDS
  - Acute respiratory failure
  - Capillary leak syndrome
  - Da Nang Lung
  - Shock Lung
  - Traumatic wet Lung
  - Adult hyaline membrane disease

# Risk Factors in ARDS

Sepsis	3.8%
Cardiopulmonary bypass	1.7%
Transfusion	5.0%
Severe pneumonia	12.0%
Burn	2.3%
Aspiration	35.6%
Fracture	5.3%
Intravascular coagulopathy	12.5%
Two or more of the above	24.6%

# PATHOPHYSIOLOGY AND PATHOGENESIS

- Diffuse damage to gas-exchanging surface either alveolar or capillary side of membrane
- Increased vascular permeability causes pulmonary edema
- Pathology: fluid and RBC in interstitial space, hyaline membranes
- Loss of surfactant: alveolar collapse

# CRITERIA FOR DIAGNOSIS OF ARDS

- Clinical history of catastrophic event  
Pulmonary or Non pulmonary (shock, multi system trauma)

- Exclude  
chronic pulmonary diseases  
left ventricular failure

Must have respiratory distress

tachypnea  $>20$  breath/minute

Labored breathing

central cyanosis

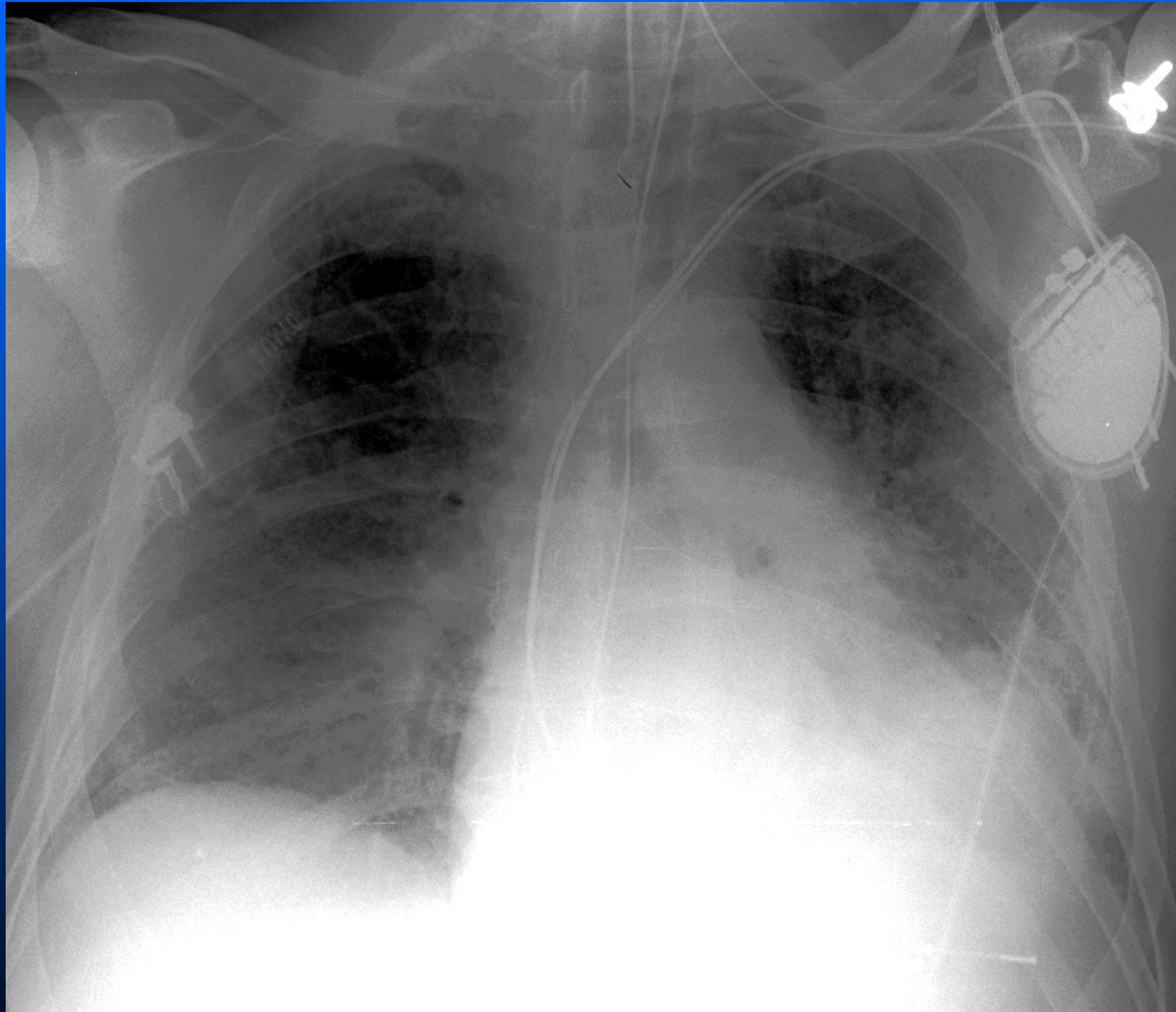
CXR- diffuse infiltrates

$\text{PaO}_2 < 50\text{mmHg}$   $\text{FiO}_2 > 0.6$

Compliance  $< 50 \text{ ml/cm H}_2\text{O}$  increased shunt and dead space



# ARDS





# MANAGEMENT OF ARDS

- Mechanical ventilation (preventive strategy)  
corrects hypoxemia/respiratory acidosis
- Fluid management  
correction of anemia and hypovolemia
- Pharmacological intervention
  - Dopamine to augment C.O.
  - Diuretics
  - Antibiotics
  - Corticosteroids - no demonstrated benefit  
early disease, helpful 1 week later

# Others treatment

- Prone position
- ECMO
- Mortality
  - continues to be 50 to 60%

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THANK YOU